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**CARRIER DIFFUSION DEGRADATION OF CCD (CHARGE-COUPLED
DEVICES) IMAGER MTF (MODULATION TRANSFER FUNCTION)
FOR BROADBAND OPTICAL SOURCES**

David H. Seib

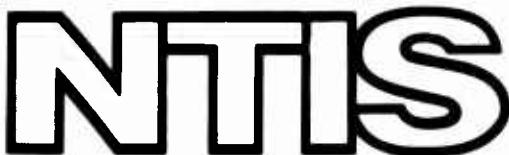
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Carrier Diffusion Degradation of CCD Imager MTF for Broadband Optical Sources

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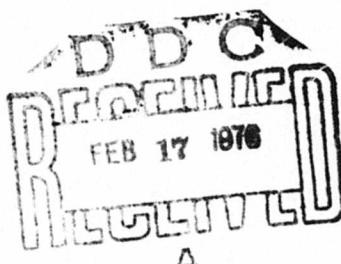
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Interim Report

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Ronald C. Lawson
Ronald C. Lawson
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fabrication from the standpoint of carrier diffusion degradation of modulation transfer function.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In a previous paper (Ref. 1) the degradation of modulation transfer function (MTF) due to carrier diffusion effects in charge-coupled imagers (CCI's) was considered for monochromatic optical inputs. In this report, these analytical results are extended to encompass broadband optical input sources. This extension is of obvious importance since most CCI applications involve broadband sources. The calculations to be presented are intended to facilitate comparison of theory with experimental measurements of CCI MTF's, which are usually done with a band of wavelengths. The question of whether it is beneficial to filter out certain wavelengths to improve MTF is also addressed. Broadband MTF's for both frontside-illuminated and backside-illuminated CCI's are considered and compared, using typical, representative, parameter values. Since in frontside and backside illuminated imagers long and short wavelengths, respectively, contribute most to the degradation of MTF, appropriate optical filtering can be used to improve MTF. However, this improvement comes at the expense of broadband responsivity. Calculations are therefore given of the broadband responsivity for different optical bands as well as the broadband MTF in order to evaluate the tradeoff between MTF improvement and responsivity degradation.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The monochromatic, carrier diffusion MTF for both frontside and backside illuminated CCI's was previously evaluated (Ref. 1) by solving the minority carrier diffusion equation with the uniform depletion approximation and appropriate boundary conditions (Ref. 2). Let the monochromatic MTF as a function of v_s (spatial frequency in cycles/mm) and λ (optical wavelength) obtained in this way be $MTF(v_s, \lambda)$. The diffusion equation which determines $MTF(v_s, \lambda)$ is linear. Therefore, superposition holds, and the broadband MTF, $\overline{MTF}(v_s, \lambda_i, \lambda_f)$, due to excitation by a band of wavelengths extending from initial wavelength λ_i to final wavelength λ_f can be expressed as:

$$\overline{MTF}(v_s, \lambda_i, \lambda_f) = \frac{\int_{\lambda_i}^{\lambda_f} \eta(\lambda) N(\lambda) T(\lambda) MTF(v_s, \lambda) d\lambda}{\int_{\lambda_i}^{\lambda_f} \eta(\lambda) N(\lambda) T(\lambda) d\lambda} \quad (1)$$

Here $N(\lambda)$ and $\eta(\lambda)$ are the number of photons incident on and the quantum efficiency of the CCI at λ . $T(\lambda)$ is the number of incident photons transmitted into the silicon; for backside illumination $T(\lambda)$ is $1.0 - R(\lambda)$ ($R(\lambda)$ = imager reflectivity), while for frontside illumination $T(\lambda)$ is the transmission of the multilayer interference filter formed by oxide and electrode layers. The inclusion of these terms properly normalizes $\overline{MTF}(v_s, \lambda_i, \lambda_f)$ to the number of photoelectrons collected due to source photons at wavelength λ . To obtain $N(\lambda)$, a black body source of specified temperature is assumed; calculations are given for source temperatures of 2854 K and 4800 K. $\eta(\lambda)$ is obtained from the diffusion model which determines $MTF(v_s, \lambda)$.

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III. FRONTSIDE ILLUMINATION

For evaluation of \overline{MTF} for both frontside and backside illuminated devices, the values of optical absorption constant, α , for silicon given by Eden (Ref. 3) are used. For a frontside illuminated device, the following parameters are chosen for use in calculations. The depletion width, W_D , is taken to be $4.0 \mu\text{m}$; this is representative of widths which can be readily attained in practice (Ref. 4). Diffusion length is taken to be $100 \mu\text{m}$. For $T(\lambda)$, the transmittance curve calculated by Brown and Chamberlain (Ref. 5) is used. This curve gives the transmittance of layers of pyroglass, poly-silicon, and SiO_2 on silicon, and has been reproduced in Fig. 1. The curve was smoothly extrapolated to a value of $\sim 20\%$ at longer wavelengths. The use of a transmittance curve for a particular layer structure and set of layer thicknesses does not detract significantly from the generality of the results and conclusions presented below. This occurs because $T(\lambda)$ appears in an integral (Eq. (1)), making \overline{MTF} relatively insensitive to the exact shape of $T(\lambda)$. Also, because $T(\lambda)$ is in both the numerator and denominator of Eq. (1), \overline{MTF} is insensitive to the scale of $T(\lambda)$. The optical wavelength band is assumed to be limited by an ideal optical filter with unity transmission for $\lambda_i : \lambda : \lambda_f$ and zero otherwise.

There are three parameters in \overline{MTF} (v_s , λ_i , λ_f); therefore there are several ways to present the calculated results. One method is to fix the final wavelength, λ_f , at some value and display \overline{MTF} as a function of v_s with λ_i as a parameter. An example is shown in Fig. 2, where $\lambda_f = 1.2 \mu\text{m}$, $T_s = 2854 \text{ K}$, and curves are shown for $\lambda_i = 0.5, 0.7, 0.9$ and $1.1 \mu\text{m}$. Other parameters are as discussed above for the frontside illuminated imager. To read Fig. 2, locate the curve which corresponds to the initial wavelength of the spectral band of interest, remembering $\lambda_f = 1.2 \mu\text{m}$, and read \overline{MTF} as a function of v_s .

If the spectral band reaching the sensor is filtered to eliminate long wavelengths (toward the final wavelength end), a new set of curves corresponding to the new λ_f must be used. Curves for $\lambda_f = 0.8 \mu\text{m}$ are shown in

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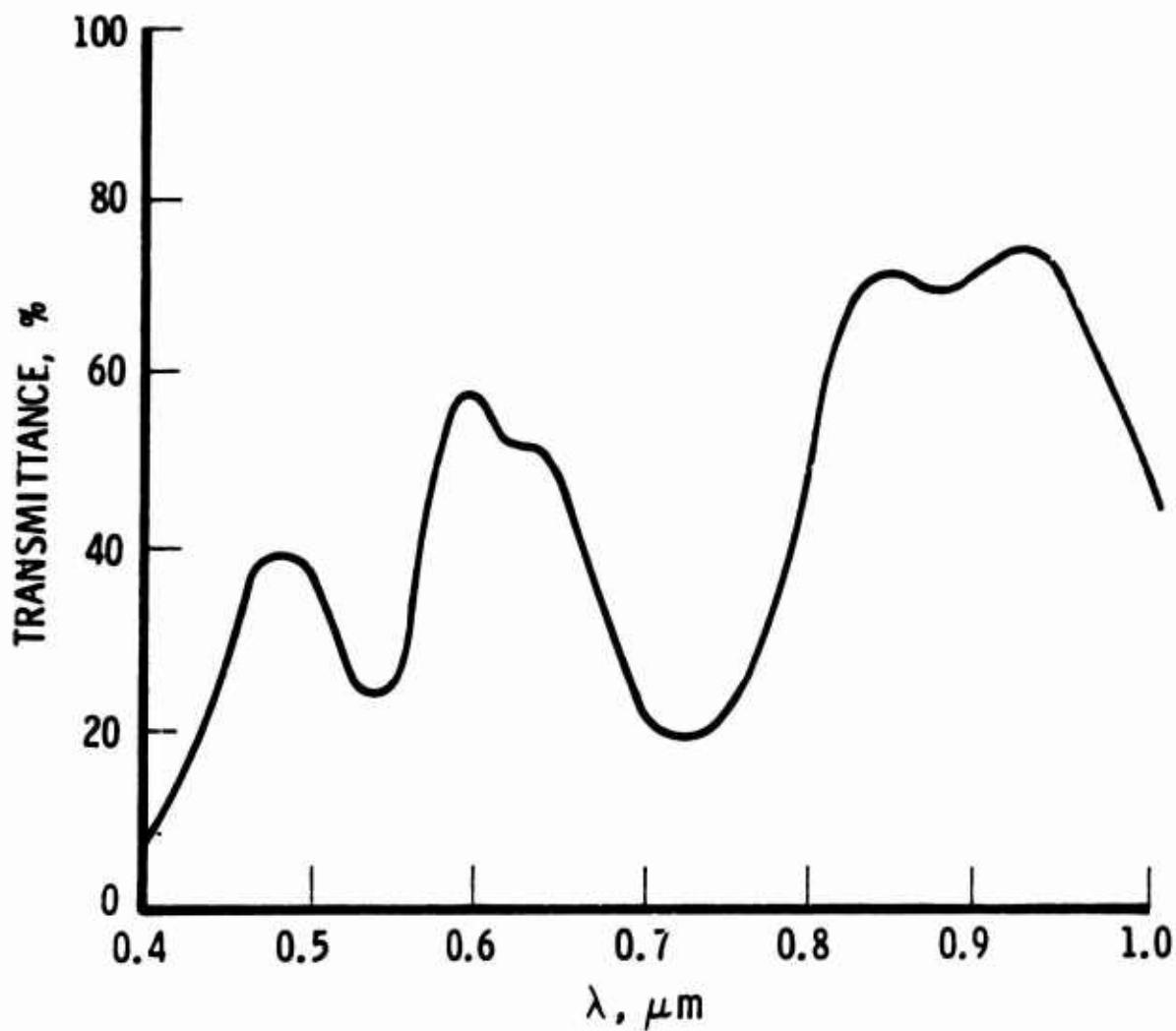
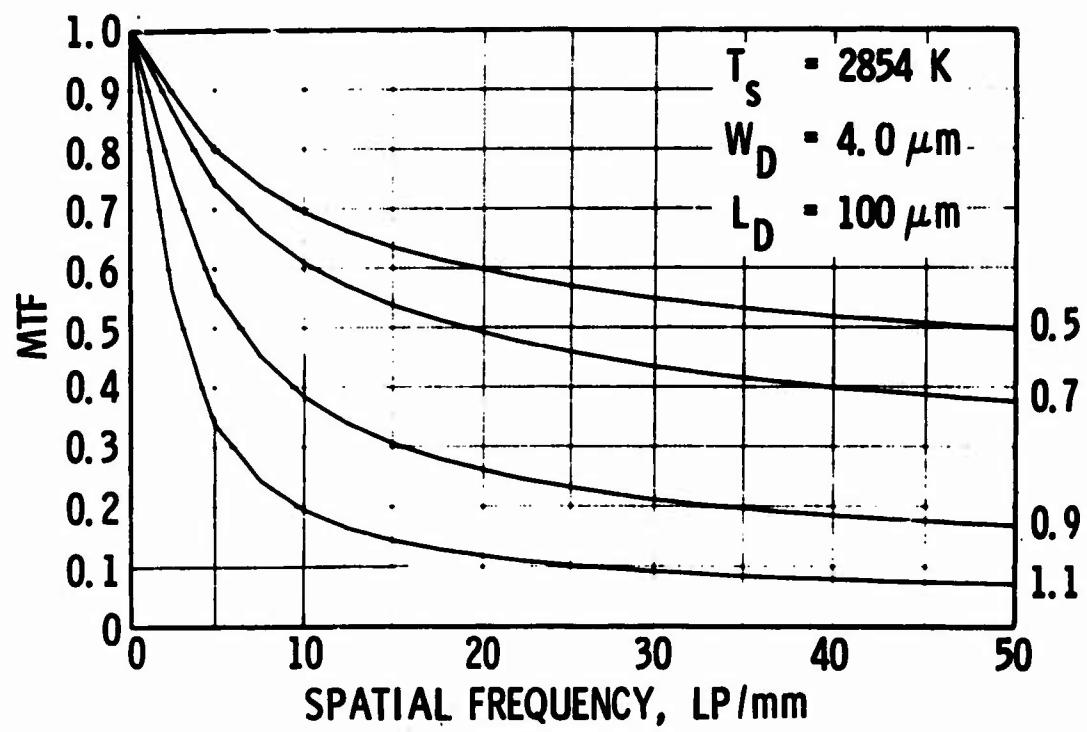


Figure 1. Calculated Transmittance $T(\lambda)$ of CCI Electrode and Oxide Layers. The layers are pyroglass ($0.755 \mu\text{m}$), polysilicon ($0.26 \mu\text{m}$), and SiO_2 ($0.13 \mu\text{m}$) (Ref. 5).



**Figure 2. Broadband MTF for Frontside Illumination vs Spatial Frequency with Initial Wavelength as a Parameter.
Final wavelength, 1.2 μm .**

Fig. 3; they are read as described above. Comparison of Figs. 2 and 3 indicates that eliminating long wavelengths improves \overline{MTF} , as expected.

Calculated results for a source temperature of 4800 K and $\lambda_f = 1.2 \mu\text{m}$ are given in Fig. 4. \overline{MTF} over the band 0.5 - 1.2 μm is improved compared to Fig. 2 because of the greater number of high energy photons in the 4800 K source.

Increasing the depletion width, W_D , improves \overline{MTF} . This is illustrated in Fig. 5, where \overline{MTF} has been calculated for $W_D = 8 \mu\text{m}$, $T_s = 2854 \text{ K}$, $\lambda_f = 1.2 \mu\text{m}$, and all other parameters as above. For the band 0.5-1.2 μm , the improvement at 50 cycles/mm is by a factor of 1.2.

The trade-off between broadband responsivity and broadband \overline{MTF} as long wavelengths are filtered from the source spectrum is indicated in Figs. 6-9. The normalized broadband responsivity is defined as:

$$R(\lambda_i, \lambda_f) = \frac{\int_{\lambda_i}^{\lambda_f} \eta(\lambda) N(\lambda) T(\lambda) d\lambda}{\int_{0.4}^{1.2} \eta(\lambda) N(\lambda) T(\lambda) d\lambda} \quad (2)$$

For a given source, $R(\lambda_i, \lambda_f)$ gives the number of amperes created by the optical band λ_i to λ_f normalized to the number of amperes created by the entire spectral band. In Fig. 6, $R(\lambda_i, \lambda_f)$ is plotted vs λ_f with $\lambda_i = 0.4 \mu\text{m}$ for source temperatures of 2854 K and 4800 K, and for $W_D = 4.0 \mu\text{m}$. This quantity is greater than 0.9 for $\lambda_f \geq 0.95 \mu\text{m}$ but decreases rapidly for $\lambda_f < 0.95 \mu\text{m}$. The elimination of long wavelengths from the spectrum affects \overline{MTF} as shown in Figs. 8 and 9. In these curves, λ_i is fixed at 0.4 μm and \overline{MTF} is plotted vs λ_f with v_s as a parameter. This is an alternative method of presenting some of the same information contained in Figs. 2-4. As an example, if \overline{MTF} is desired for the band 0.4-0.9 μm , locate 0.9 μm on the

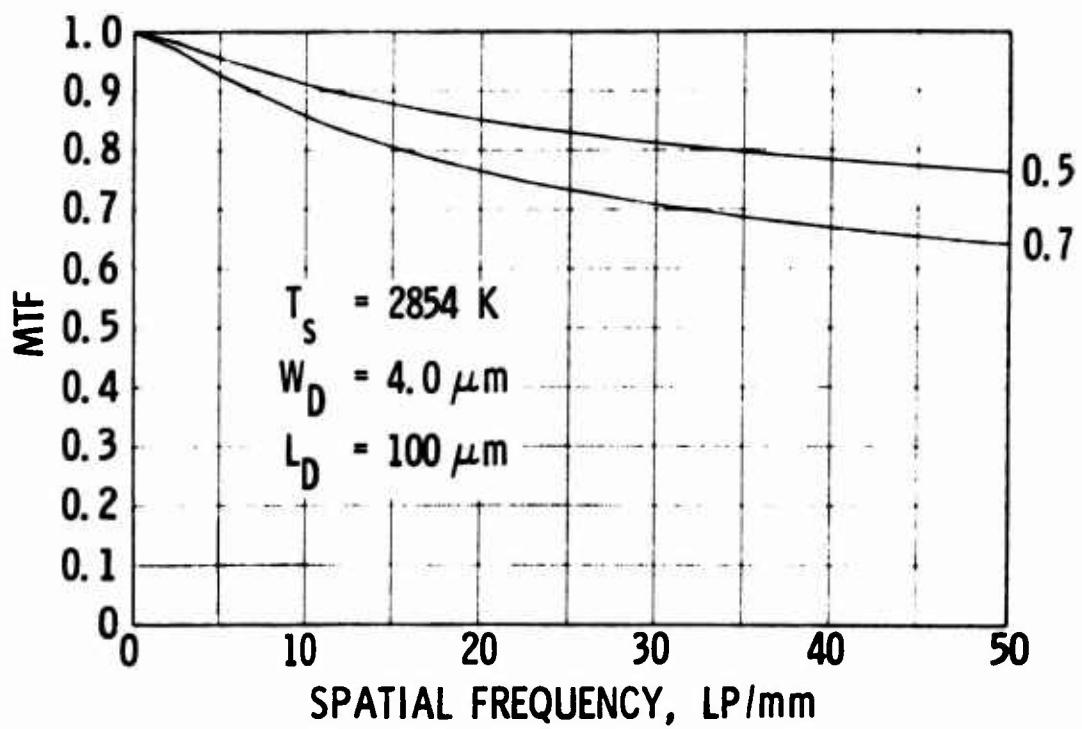


Figure 3. MTF for Frontside Illumination vs Spatial Frequency with Initial Wavelength as a Parameter. Final wavelength, $0.8 \mu\text{m}$.

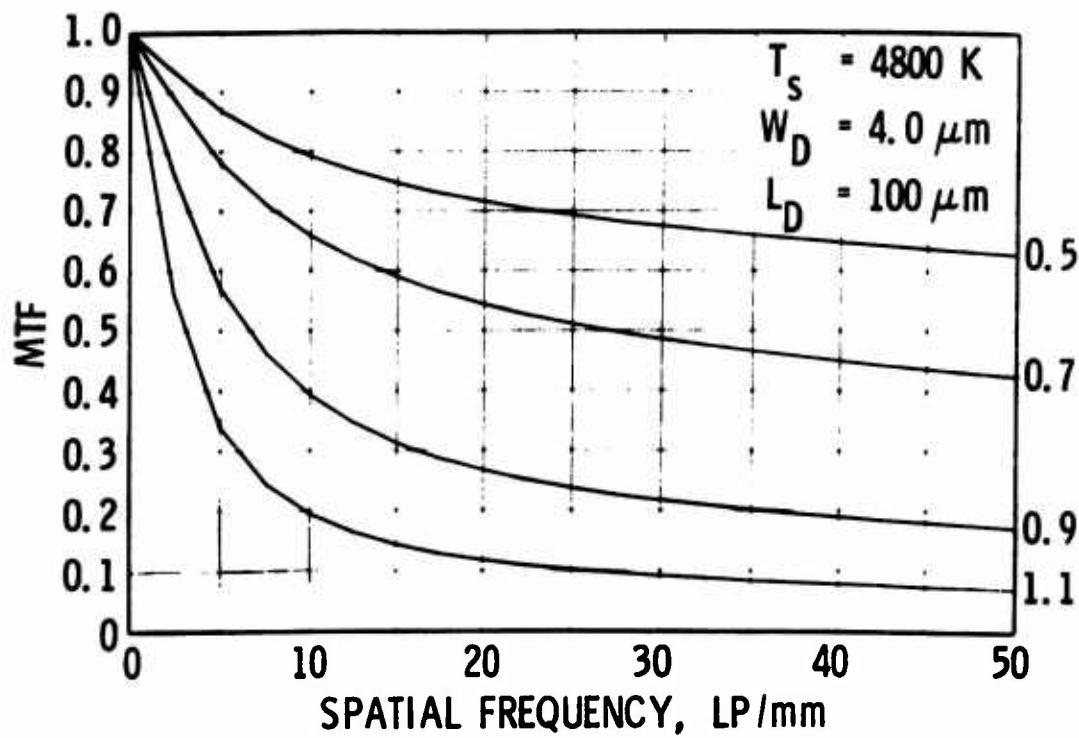


Figure 4. MTF for Frontside Illumination vs Spatial Frequency with Initial Wavelength as a Parameter. Final wavelength, 1.2 μm .

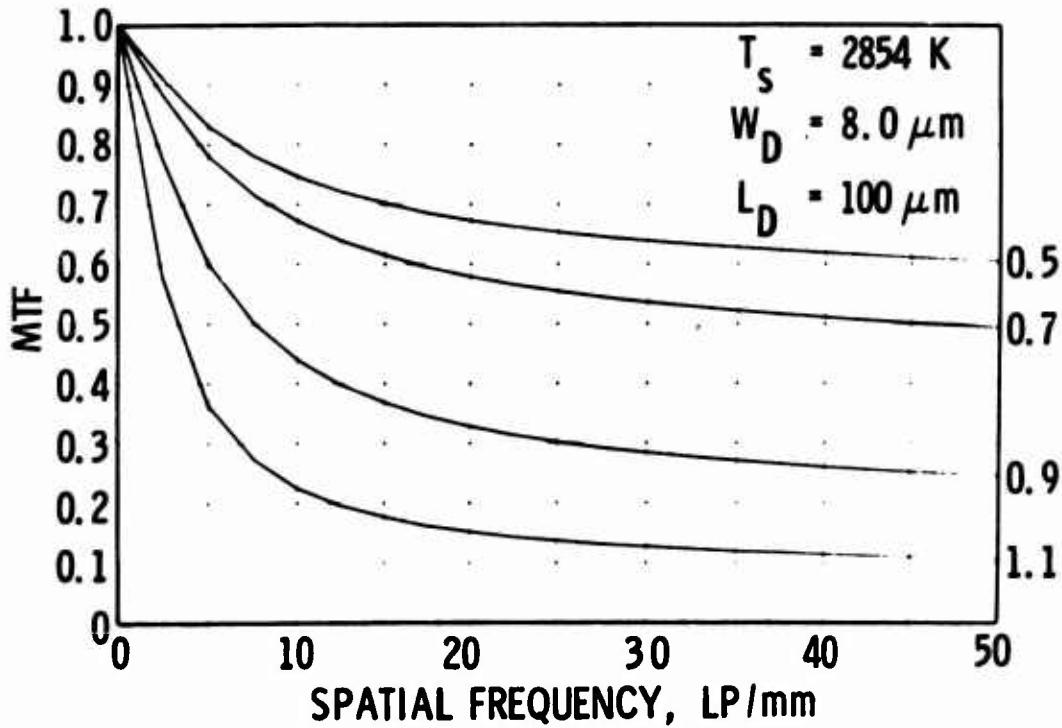


Figure 5. MTF for Frontside Illumination vs Spatial Frequency with Initial Wavelength as a Parameter. Final wavelength, $1.2 \mu\text{m}$. $W_D = 8.0 \mu\text{m}$ to indicate the effect of increasing the depletion width.

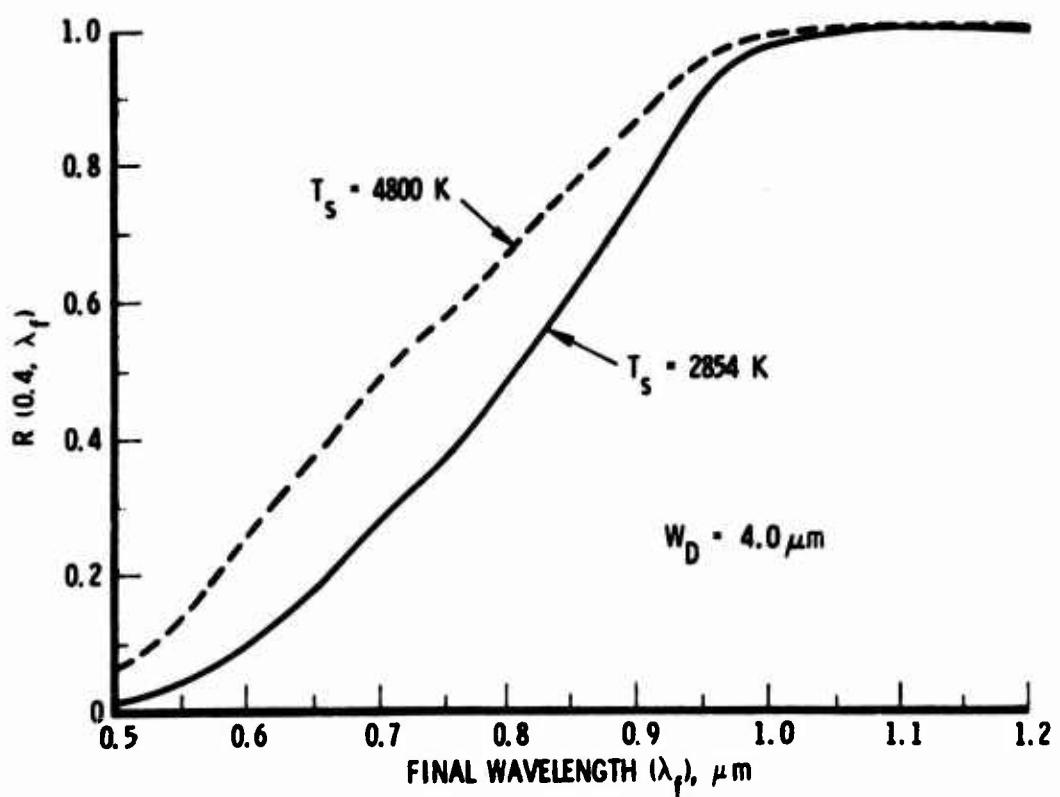


Figure 6. Normalized Broadband Responsivity vs Final Wavelength for Initial Wavelength of $0.4 \mu\text{m}$ and Frontside Illumination.

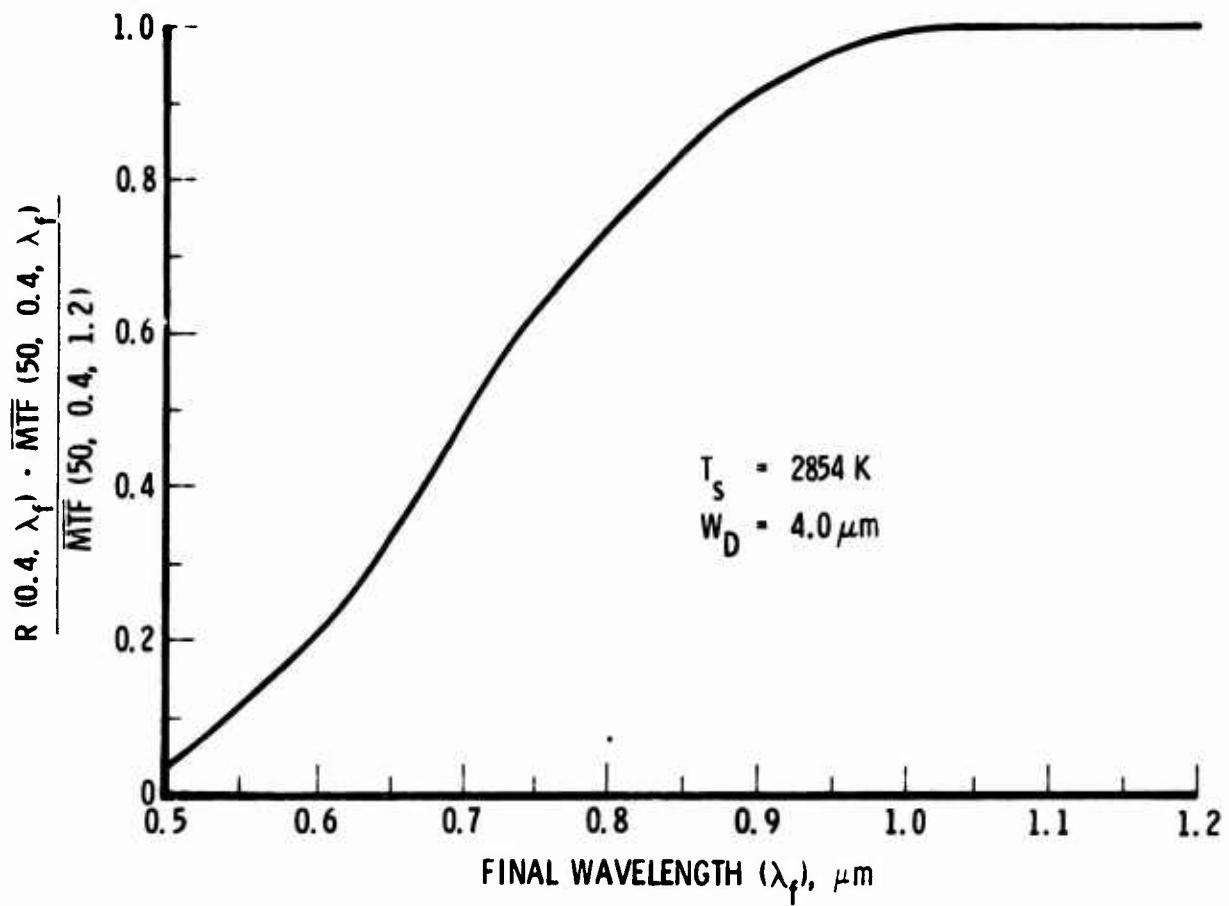


Figure 7. Normalized Broadband Responsivity Times Normalized Broadband MTF at 50 cycles/mm vs Final Wavelength for Initial Wavelength of $0.4 \mu\text{m}$.

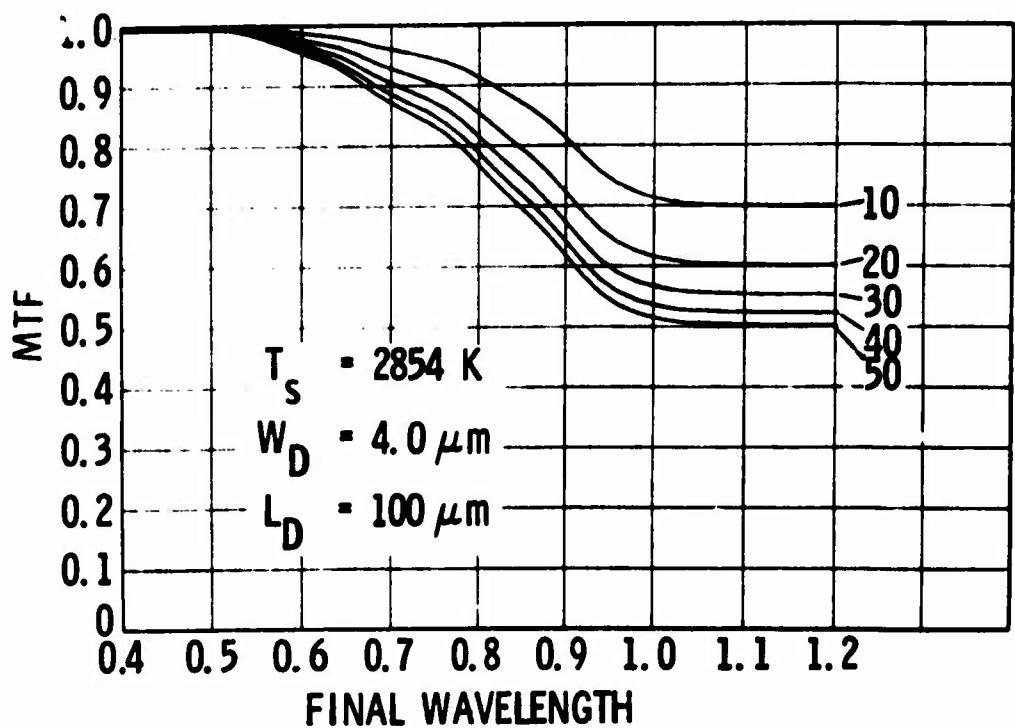


Figure 8. Broadband MTF for Frontside Illumination vs Final Wavelength with Spatial Frequency as a Parameter.
Initial wavelength, $0.4 \mu\text{m}$; T_s , 2854 K .

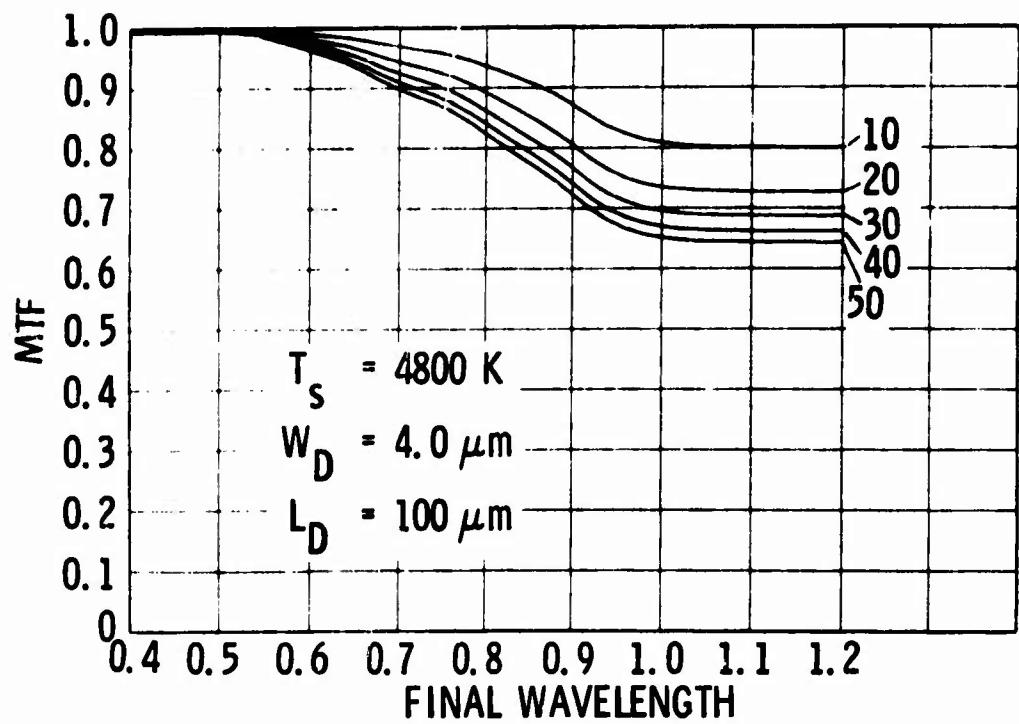


Figure 9. Broadband MTF for Frontside Illumination vs Final Wavelength with Spatial Frequency as a Parameter.
Initial wavelength, $0.4 \mu\text{m}$; T_s , 4800 K .

horizontal-axis and read \overline{MTF} at 50, 40...10 cycles/mm where the vertical line passing through 0.9 μm intersects the plotted curves.

Whether filtering of long wavelengths actually improves overall imager performance is dependent upon the product of broadband responsivity and \overline{MTF} . In Fig. 7, the product $R(0.4, \lambda_f) \cdot \overline{MTF}(50, 0.4, \lambda_f) / \overline{MTF}(50, 0.4, 1.2)$ is plotted vs λ_f . This quantity is a measure of the total signal strength obtained for a spatial frequency of 50 cycles/mm as λ_f is varied. It never exceeds 1.0, indicating that imager performance with respect to carrier diffusion effects is not improved by filtering out long wavelengths. This results because responsivity falls more rapidly than \overline{MTF} increases as the optical band is restricted. The final wavelength can be restricted to $\sim 0.95 \mu\text{m}$ for $T_s = 2854 \text{ K}$ with less than 5% loss in performance, however. The same conclusions hold for other source temperatures and depletion widths. The ability to restrict the optical band without degrading imager performance may be beneficial to the overall system performance. For instance, lens performance might be improved by eliminating long wavelengths and any difficulties associated with maintaining focus over a broad optical spectrum would be lessened.

IV. BACKSIDE ILLUMINATION

To evaluate MTF for backside illuminated CCI's the parameters $W_D = 4.0 \mu\text{m}$, $L_D = 100 \mu\text{m}$, and T_W = wafer thickness = $10.0 \mu\text{m}$ (Ref. 4) are chosen. In addition, to evaluate $T(\lambda) = 1-R(\lambda)$, values of reflectivity for a clean silicon surface are used (Ref. 3). Curves of $\overline{\text{MTF}}$ vs ν_s with λ_i as a parameter are shown in Figs. 10 and 11 for $T_s = 2854 \text{ K}$ and 4800 K , respectively. In these curves, λ_f is fixed at $1.2 \mu\text{m}$. As expected, elimination of short wavelengths improves $\overline{\text{MTF}}$.

The effect of increasing the depletion width to $8.0 \mu\text{m}$, with all other parameters remaining the same, is to practically eliminate all $\overline{\text{MTF}}$ degradation caused by carrier diffusion. This is illustrated in Fig. 12, where $\overline{\text{MTF}}$ is shown for $W_D = 8.0 \mu\text{m}$, $T_s = 4800 \text{ K}$, and $\lambda_f = 1.2 \mu\text{m}$.

The trade-off between quantum efficiency and $\overline{\text{MTF}}$ is given in Figs. 13-16 for the backside illuminated imager considered ($W_D = 4.0 \mu\text{m}$). In Fig. 13 $R(\lambda_i, 1.2)$, from Eq. (2), is plotted vs λ_i ; these curves therefore indicate how normalized responsivity falls off as short wavelengths are filtered from the source spectrum. Figures 15 and 16 show $\overline{\text{MTF}}$ as a function of λ_i for $T_s = 2854 \text{ K}$ and 4800 K ($\lambda_f = 1.2 \mu\text{m}$). Finally, the product $R(\lambda_i, 1.2) \cdot \overline{\text{MTF}}(50, \lambda_i, 1.2) / \overline{\text{MTF}}(50, 0.4, 1.2)$ is given in Fig. 14. As in the case of the frontside illuminated imager, this quantity never exceeds 1.0 indicating that the best imager performance is obtained for the full $0.4-1.2 \mu\text{m}$ optical band.

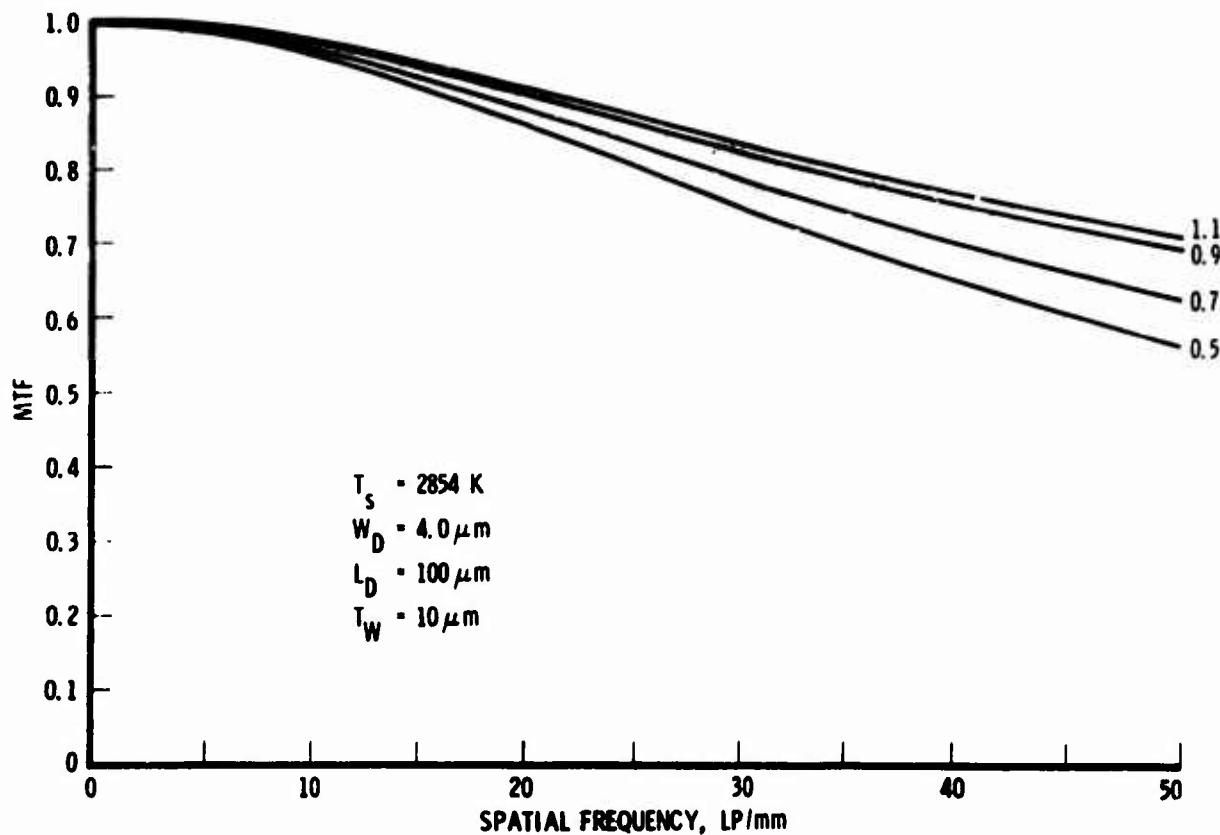


Figure 10. Broadband MTF for Backside Illumination vs Spatial Frequency with Initial Wavelength as a Parameter. Final wavelength, $1.2 \mu\text{m}$; T_s , 2854 K.

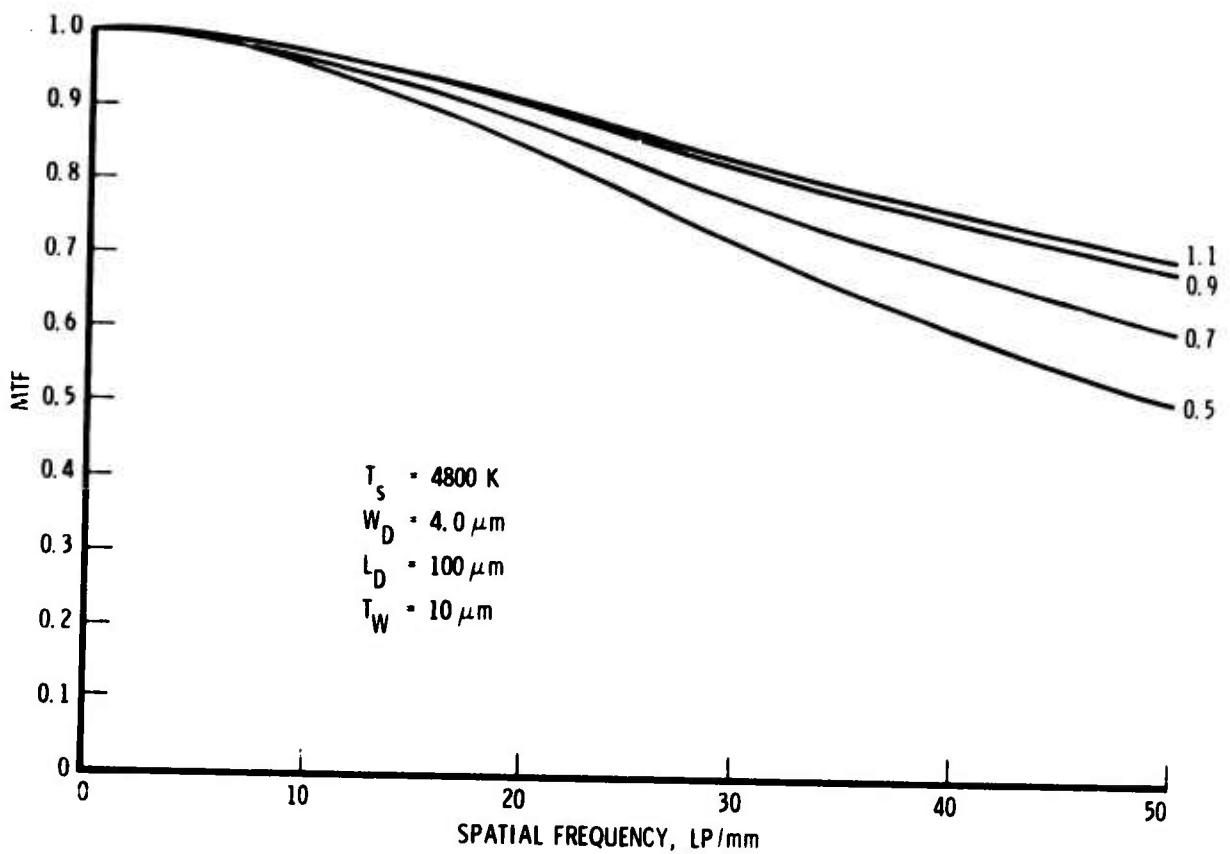


Figure 11. Broadband MTF for Backside Illumination *vs* Spatial Frequency with Initial Wavelength as a Parameter. Final wavelength, $1.2 \mu\text{m}$; T_s , 4800 K .

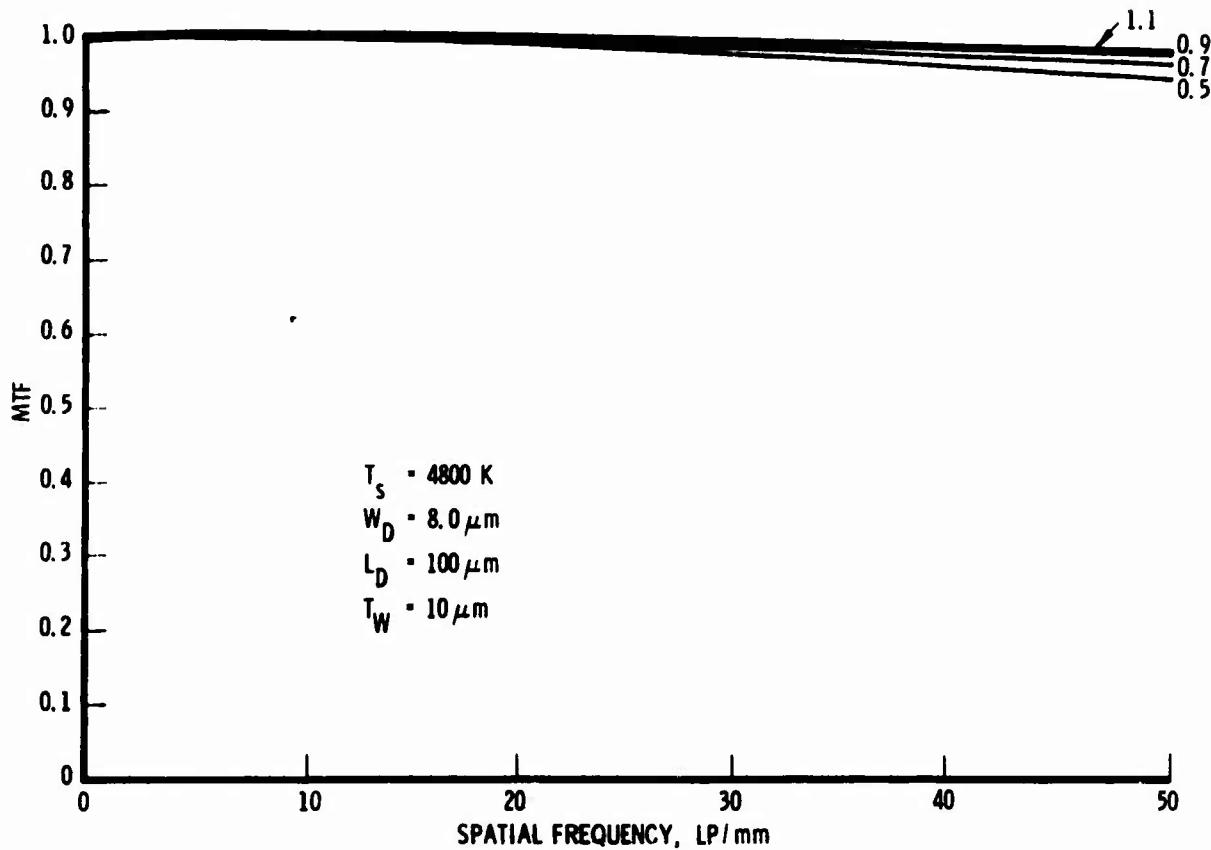


Figure 12. Broadband MTF for Backside Illumination vs Spatial Wavelength with Initial Wavelength as a Parameter. Final wavelength, $1.2\text{ }\mu\text{m}$; T_s , 4800 K ; W_D , $8.0\text{ }\mu\text{m}$.

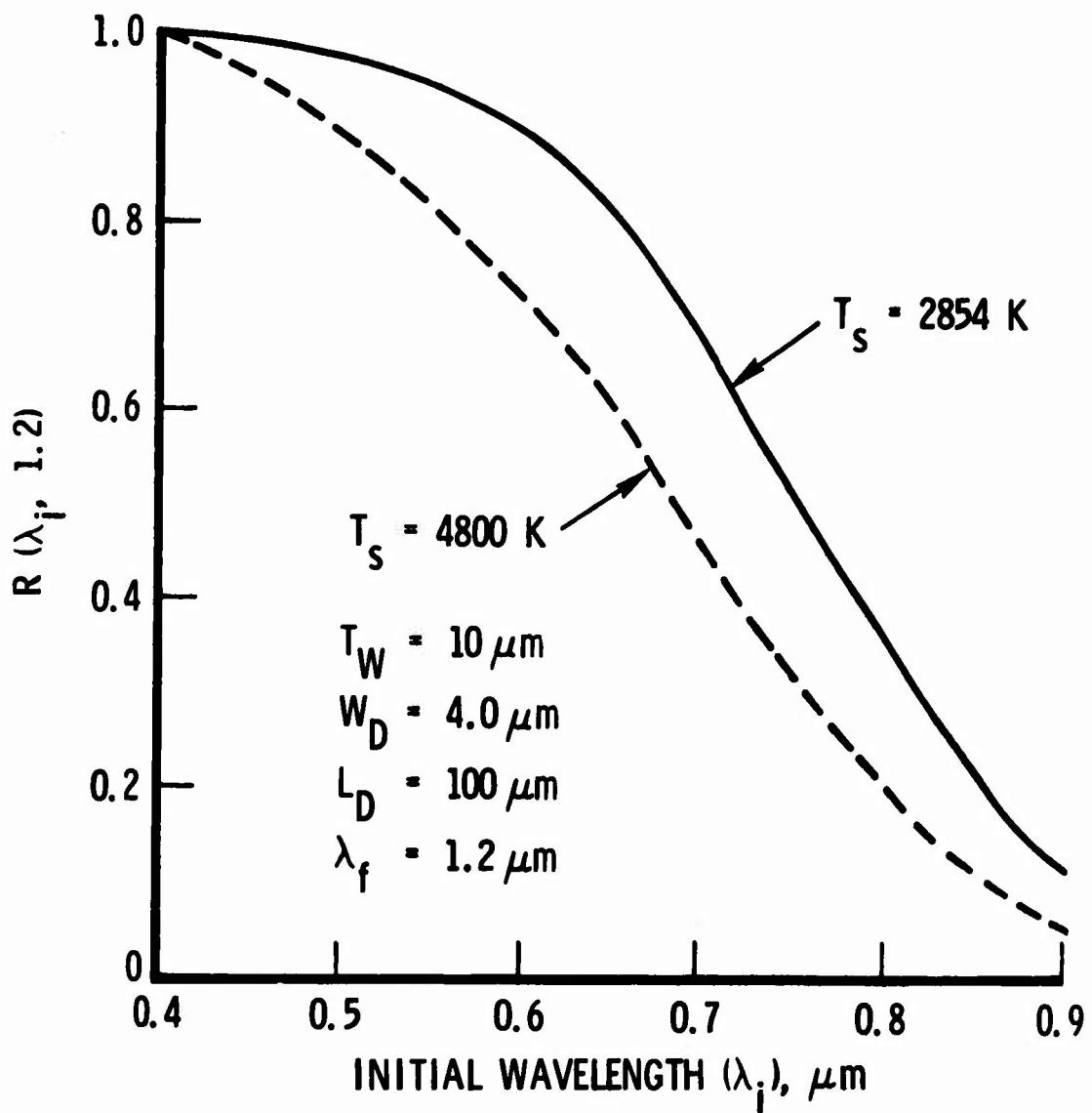


Figure 13. Normalized Broadband Responsivity vs Initial Wavelength for Final Wavelength of $1.2\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and Backside Illumination

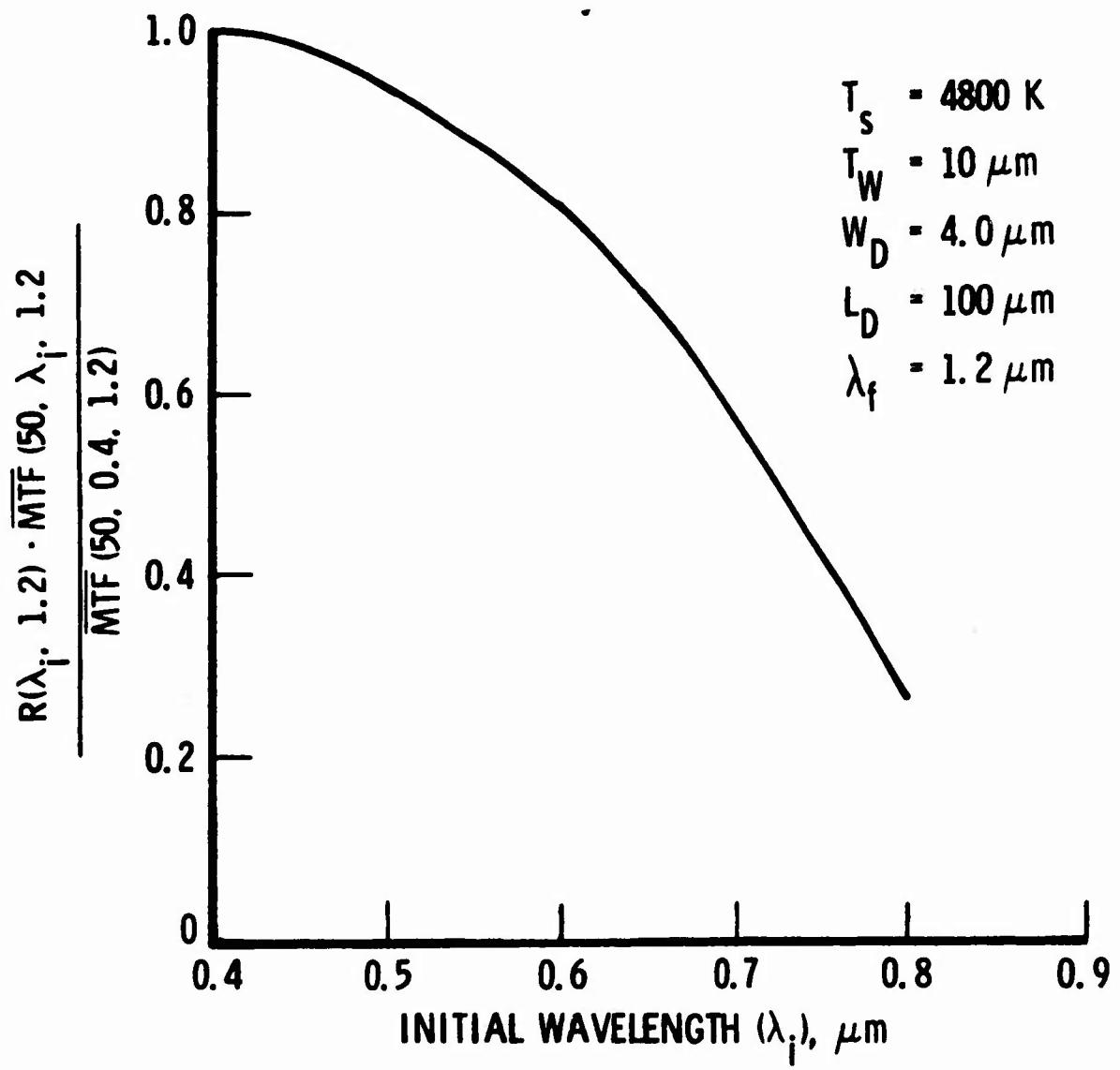


Figure 14. Normalized Broadband Responsivity Times Normalized Broadband MTF at 50 cycles/mm vs Initial Wavelength for Final Wavelength of $1.2 \mu\text{m}$.

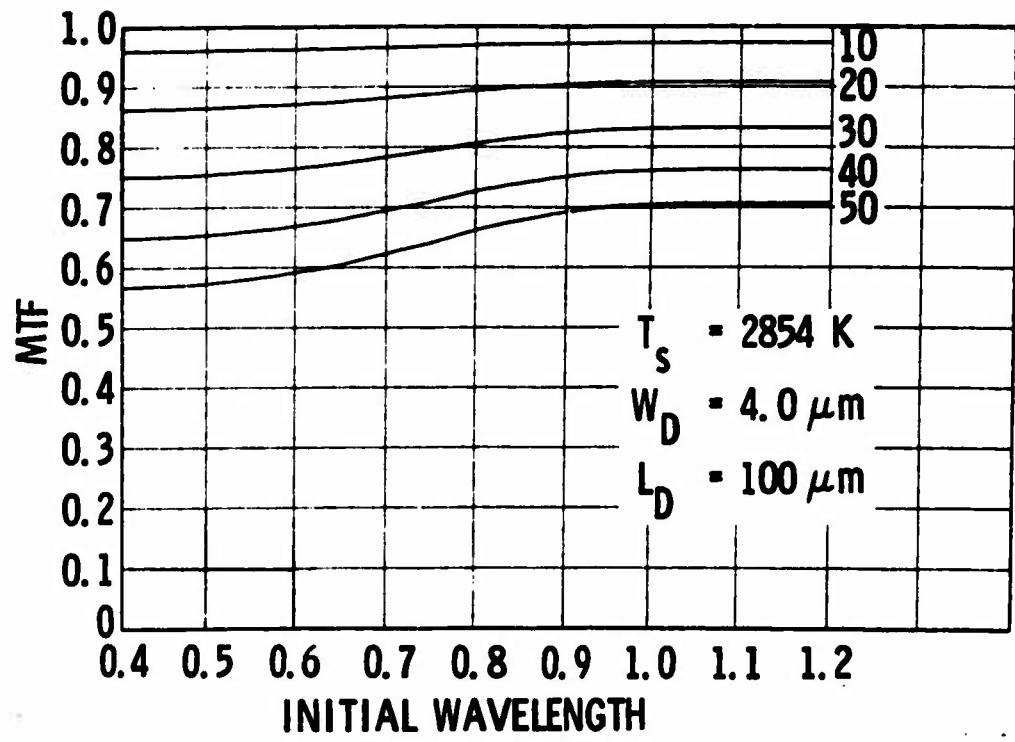


Figure 15. Broadband \overline{MTF} for Backside Illumination vs Initial Wavelength with Spatial Frequency as a Parameter. Final wavelength, $1.2 \mu\text{m}$; T_s , 2854 K.

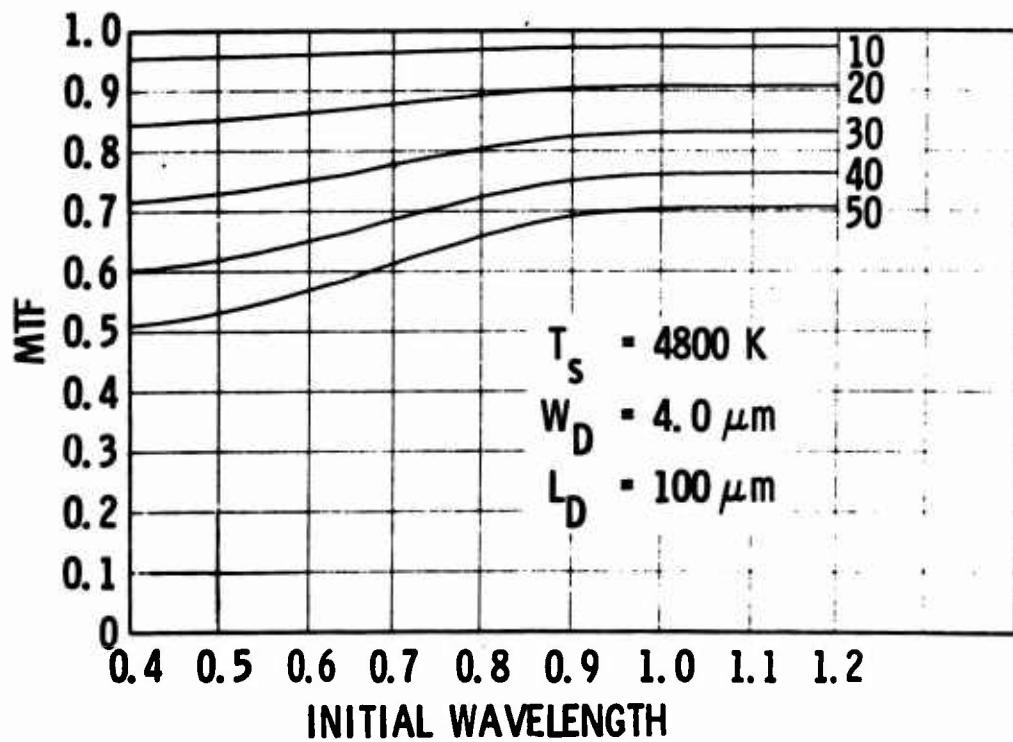


Figure 16. Broadband MTF for Backside Illumination vs Initial Wavelength with Spatial Frequency as a Parameter. Final wavelength, $1.2 \mu\text{m}$; T_s , 4800 K.

V. DISCUSSION

The calculated results discussed above indicate that even though $\overline{MTF}(\nu_s, \lambda)$ for a charge coupled imager may become small for high spatial frequencies and certain wavelengths (Ref. 1), when broadband excitation is considered \overline{MTF} can be reasonably high. This is due to the fact that the wavelengths which contribute most to carrier diffusion degradation (short and long wavelengths for back- and frontside illumination respectively) contribute only a small fraction of the total response for the source temperatures chosen. Comparison of Figs. 2, 4, and 10, 11 indicates that for $W_D = 4.0 \mu\text{m}$ and full band the backside illuminated device has somewhat better \overline{MTF} . If the depletion width is increased to $8.0 \mu\text{m}$, the backside illuminated imager is considerably better in terms of \overline{MTF} than the frontside illuminated device (Figs. 5 and 12). Note that increasing the depletion width also is beneficial in both types of devices in increasing the responsivity. \overline{MTF} for the frontside illuminated device might be improved somewhat by thinning the wafer and creating a high recombination velocity back surface in order to capture carriers created far from the depletion region. This is essentially like filtering out the long wavelengths — improvement in \overline{MTF} is obtained at the expense of responsivity. (Thinning a frontside illuminated device to the same thickness, $\approx 10 \mu\text{m}$, as a backside illuminated device would of course result in comparable values of \overline{MTF} . However the responsivity of the frontside illuminated device would be less due to the transmission of the oxide-electrode layers.) It therefore appears that, from the standpoint of best broadband modulation transfer function due to carrier diffusion effects, the backside approach to charge coupled imager fabrication is the most advantageous.

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Aerophysics Laboratory: Launch and reentry aerodynamics, heat transfer, reentry physics, chemical kinetics, structural mechanics, flight dynamics, atmospheric pollution, and high-power gas lasers.

Chemistry and Physics Laboratory: Atmospheric reactions and atmospheric optics, chemical reactions in polluted atmospheres, chemical reactions of excited species in rocket plumes, chemical thermodynamics, plasma and laser-induced reactions, laser chemistry, propulsion chemistry, space vacuum and radiation effects on materials, lubrication and surface phenomena, photo-sensitive materials and sensors, high precision laser ranging, and the application of physics and chemistry to problems of law enforcement and biomedicine.

Electronics Research Laboratory: Electromagnetic theory, devices, and propagation phenomena, including plasma electromagnetics; quantum electronics, lasers, and electro-optics; communication sciences, applied electronics, semiconducting, superconducting, and crystal device physics, optical and acoustical imaging; atmospheric pollution; millimeter wave and far-infrared technology.

Materials Sciences Laboratory: Development of new materials; metal matrix composites and new forms of carbon; test and evaluation of graphite and ceramics in reentry; spacecraft materials and electronic components in nuclear weapons environment; application of fracture mechanics to stress corrosion and fatigue-induced fractures in structural metals.

Space Physics Laboratory: Atmospheric and ionospheric physics, radiation from the atmosphere, density and composition of the atmosphere, aurorae and airglow; magnetospheric physics, cosmic rays, generation and propagation of plasma waves in the magnetosphere; solar physics, studies of solar magnetic fields; space astronomy, x-ray astronomy; the effects of nuclear explosions, magnetic storms, and solar activity on the earth's atmosphere, ionosphere, and magnetosphere; the effects of optical, electromagnetic, and particulate radiations in space on space systems.

THE AEROSPACE CORPORATION
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